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A Comparative Study of Striking and Non-Striking Teachers in Selected School Districts in the United States.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STRIKING AND NON-STRIKING
TEACHERS IN SELECTED SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN THE UNITED STATES

The Louisiana State University and Agricultural
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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STRIKING AND
NON-STRIKING TEACHERS IN
SELECTED SCHOOL DISTRICTS
IN THE UNITED STATES

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education

in

The Interdepartmental Program of Education

by
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M.Ed., Louisiana State University, 1971
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to compare selected variables related to striking and non-striking teachers in certain school districts that were involved in a strike situation during September or October of 1979. One thousand randomly selected public school teachers from districts that were engaged in a strike situation at the beginning of the school year composed the population. Three hundred seventy-one partially or completely filled out questionnaires were returned and utilized for analysis. Data analyses were intended to reveal selected demographic characteristics, general characteristics of the educational setting, educational experience, level of training and tenure status, influence on decision making, and the perceived possible future actions of striking and non-striking teachers who responded to the mailed questionnaire.

The following conclusions were drawn regarding the respondents' answers to the questions. Most of the respondents, whether they were strikers or non-strikers, were female, married, Caucasian, teaching at an elementary school with a predominately white student body taught by a predominately white faculty and a student enrollment of over 500. The age of the strikers clustered around the 25-30-year-old group with those respondents younger than 25 and over 50 not inclined to strike.

Most of the teachers who responded had formal training at the bachelor's degree level and had from four to seven years of teaching experience. Strikers and non-strikers reported that the greatest source of pressure to leave their teaching assignment prior to the strike came from co-workers and professional organizations. Both groups also indicated that the central office and the school board greatly hindered progress in providing assistance in the settlement of the strike.

Tenure status apparently had little or no effect on whether or not a teacher elected to strike. Alternative source of income during the strike situation also had little, if any, effect on the decision to strike; overall only 34 percent of the total sample had an alternative source of income.

Both groups strongly indicated that another strike would be necessary in the future, and the responses indicate that more than 65 percent of the total group would participate in a strike in the future.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

During the first two months of the 1979-80 school year, more than 150 teacher strikes occurred in 18 states in the United States. According to National Education Association (NEA) reports this figure has already surpassed the number of strikes during previous years and has affected a larger number of states than ever before. Today it appears as though teacher strikes are gaining momentum throughout the nation, even though striking teachers have not always gained public support for their actions.

Most of the studies reviewed for this dissertation equated support for strikes as synonymous with militancy. The literature supports the notion that teachers who actively participate in a strike or even openly challenge authority are viewed as militant, while those teachers who do not actively engage in strike activities are viewed as non-militant (Corwin, 1970).

Teacher militancy and teacher strikes are generally accepted by the public as necessary correlates. However this view does not aid in the total understanding of the strike process or the decision on the part of the individual to participate. While it is generally accepted by non-educators that teachers strike for economic reasons, striking teachers frequently reported class size, preparation time,

and employer policies regarding transfers, layoffs, and reinstallments as contributors (Bureau of National Affairs/(BNA), 1979). Recent empirical information regarding the factors that influence a teacher to strike or not to strike appears to be lacking in the literature. Even more scarce is research on how teachers feel after the strike has been settled.

Although the literature is replete with information concerning conditions of strikes or demands to be met by either side of the conflict, little is known about that part of the process regarding factors that cause a teacher to reach a decision to strike. The task then becomes one of identifying those factors and attempting to develop a profile that identifies the striking and non-striking teacher.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to compare striking and non-striking teachers in terms of selected variables in certain school districts in the United States involved in a strike situation during September or October of 1979. The data studied involved demographic information regarding the population under study as well as their educational setting, influences regarding decision-making, and possible future actions of teachers regarding strikes. These variables have been analyzed and reported in terms of a profile of striking and non-striking teachers.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following terms are defined as follows:

Adverse Situation - a strike for any duration of time.

Non-Striking Teacher - any regularly employed teacher who did not leave work voluntarily to engage in strike activities.

Striking Teacher - any regularly employed teacher who initially joined the strike or became a participant during the strike and voluntarily left work for a minimum of one full working day.

Attitude - end product of socialization and entails a pre-disposition toward action.

Profile - a composite of answers to the factors on the survey that will develop into identifiable traits for strikers or non-strikers.

Situational Elements - elements that are identifiable such as supplementary income, head of household, or others that had to be considered in the decision to strike or not strike by teachers.

Militancy - group based challenges to authority, used synonymously with teacher strikes.

Statement of Research Questions

To develop the data that were compiled the following questions were used as a guide in the research:

1. Did more men than women engage in the strike?
2. Did one or more specific age groups of men participate in the strike?
3. Did one or more specific age groups of women participate in the strike?
4. Did more blacks than whites engage in the strike?
5. Did more married teachers than unmarried teachers choose to strike?
6. Did the majority of those teachers who chose to strike come from large schools?
7. Were there more strikers from middle and junior high schools than from elementary or senior high schools?
8. Did the majority of the striking teachers work in schools with racially integrated student bodies?
9. Did the majority of striking teachers work in schools with racially integrated faculties?
10. Did the strikers have more teaching experience than the non-strikers?
11. Did the strikers have more professional coursework than did the non-strikers?
12. What were the teaching positions of the individuals who struck?
13. What was the tenure status of the striking teachers?
14. Did the strikers prior to the strike decision receive pressure from professional organizations to strike?

15. Did non-strikers prior to the strike decision receive pressure from professional organizations to strike?

16. Who seemed to have provided the most assistance in settling the strike based on the responses?

17. Who seemed to have greatly hindered the progress toward settling the strike based on responses?

18. Do the teachers under study feel that they will again be faced with a decision to strike or not to strike within their school district?

19. Would the teachers who chose to strike repeat their actions under similar circumstances?

20. Would the teachers who chose not to strike repeat their actions under similar circumstances?

21. Did striking teachers have an alternate source of income?

Delimitations of the Study

Initially this study was limited to a random sample of the population of teachers employed in those school districts in the United States involved in a strike during September or October of the 1979-80 school year. Some school districts originally chosen as part of the sample had to be omitted because the individual superintendents chose not to release the school directories. Additional school districts were then chosen at random to replace those original districts. Hence, while the districts were randomly selected, the final sample was directly dependent on the willingness of the

administrators to participate and the cooperation of individual teachers to complete and return the survey.

Importance and Implications

What is a strike really like? Vagts and Stone provide an answer:

Ask those who have gone through one. There is a big difference between strike, and talk of strike. Talk of strike may give us a feeling of group solidarity or power. It may even satisfy some personal needs. But a real strike has a price tag. The price tag is high and we each must pay.

A strike separates teacher and administrator, teacher and parent, teacher and teacher. The animosity generated by the choosing of sides permeates school buildings for years.

Do I paint the picture too darkly? Not at all, the documentation is readily available (Vagts and Stone, 1969).

This description by Vagts and Stone provides a brief but succinct account of what really occurs when a strike action is taken. The following list adds support to their findings:

1. During the months of September and October alone, more than 50,000 teachers in the United States were on strike, affecting more than 1.5 million students and costing taxpayers more than \$10,000,000 in additional expense as a direct result of the strikes (Bureau of National Affairs, 1979).

2. Teacher strikes are not declining. Numbers of strikers are increasing every year. Many school districts are faced with repeated strike situations every year or every few years (National Education Association, 1979).

3. State supreme courts are necessarily reviewing new litigation and rendering major decisions as a direct result of teacher strikes (Bureau of National Affairs, 1979).

4. The National Institute of Education under the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare paid more than \$211,000 to the Rand Corporation to study teacher strikes, collective bargaining and related issues (McDonnell and Pascal, 1978).

School boards must be aware of the factors that contribute most toward the decision of a teacher to strike. Parents, news media and the general public should be acutely aware of the influences each has once the strike situation arises. Finally, public officials, universities, state agencies, and school administrators should be interested in knowing exactly how teachers perceive the circumstances leading up to the strike, the strike itself, and the probability of striking again in the future.

It has already been determined that teacher strikes are unpleasant, financially expensive, and emotionally draining for teachers, administrators, and school boards as well as parents and state agencies. However there is another group of individuals who perhaps are affected as much as, if not more than, any other group, and this group provides the final justification for the importance and implications of this study . . . children. Some strike opponents have contended that teacher strikes are strikes against children and that they are the group most harmfully affected.

This allegation has been answered by individuals and professional organizations many times:

The contention that all strikes by teachers would be 'strikes against children' bears some scrutiny. There is no doubt that it is harmful for children to be deprived of adequate educational services. On the other hand, the contention is misleading because it misstates the issues. It overlooks the possibility that teaching under unprofessional conditions serves the interest of children less well than no teaching at all would - in short, that a strike may be 'for' as well as 'against' children. Formal schooling can be carried on under conditions which make it more harmful than no formal schooling at all. It cannot be assumed that every strike would be to the detriment of the students. But even the detriment to the students immediately deprived of educational services is not to be the ultimate consideration. It might be noted that the legal code of ethics expressly recognizes the right of the lawyer to withdraw even when it is to the detriment of the client: 'The lawyer should not throw up the unfinished task to the detriment of the client except for reasons of honor or self-respect.' In other words, if we rely upon the ethical codes of the established professions, there is no basis for the belief that a devotion to professionalism obligates teachers to continue to render their services no matter what the conditions of such service. Withdrawal, even after agreement to serve is justified, even obligatory, under certain conditions, and even if it is to the detriment of the client (Lieberman, 1956).

Organization of the Study

The organization of this study included in Chapter 1 the introduction, statement of the problem, definition of terms, statement of research questions, delimitations of the study, and importance and implications of the study. The literature was reviewed in Chapter 2. The procedures were described in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 contained the analysis and presentation of data. The summary, conclusions, and recommendations were presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature pertinent to this information was concerned primarily with data exploring the nature of teacher strikes and the general characteristics of teachers who do or do not participate. The research reviewed was discussed in the following specific sections:

1. Common Characteristics of Strikes
2. Concept of Teacher Strikes in United States History
3. Characteristics of Striking and Non-Striking Teachers

Common Characteristics of Strikes

The embryos of all strikes bears remarkable similarities despite the differences in educational environment. The birth of a strike, its growth, development, and eventual demise may differ in tissue, muscle, longevity, but the bone structure and framework are universal (Vagts and Stone, 1969).

Some common characteristics of teacher strikes found in the literature were as follows:

1. There are real grievances.
2. Polarization of sides comes fairly rapidly.

3. Low profile, behind-the-scenes talks take place early, and continues. Strikes are seldom settled on picket lines or by striking personnel.

4. High intensity, emotional affect is present during early phases. This usually wears down in a week or two. Unrelated bitter-nesses emerge.

5. There are seldom more than two or three major players.

6. Strikes not settled within 72 hours usually pass into a second phase of up to two weeks. The next phase can extend for a month or more.

7. External bodies (universities, politicians, and state agencies) usually withdraw into an observer role.

8. Media steps in and the type of publicity can be very crucial.

9. A majority of the teachers do not have to vote for a strike in order to call one. Not uncommonly, less than 50 percent of all teachers vote for the strike. A sizeable minority of teachers do not vote at all.

10. Resolution of a strike is followed by a difficult adjustment period for all parties involved. Although a few wounds never heal, most do.

11. Negotiations usually are conducted by professional negotiators on each side with little active participation from either the school board or the community.

12. The roots of the next strike are established (Soderbergh, 1980; Vagts and Stone, 1969; Lieberman, 1966; Hiller, 1972; McDonnell and Pascal, 1979).

Concept of Teacher Strikes in United States History

Although eight Pennsylvania school teachers went on strike in 1880 for increase in wages, proliferation of teacher strikes as experienced today is a post 1945 development. Teachers have historically been thought of as conservative and submissive (Corwin, 1970; Snarr, 1975).

In fact, public employees were not generally dissatisfied with their terms and conditions of employment prior to the 1960's; and, therefore, except in isolated cases, they did not press for the right to strike (Alexander, 1980). While the wages and salaries of public employees in the United States had traditionally lagged behind comparable private sector salaries, the greater fringe benefits and job security associated with public employment were traditionally thought to be adequate compensation. Prior to 1962, no board of education in the United States was required by law to negotiate with its teachers, and only a handful of boards of education had signed written collective bargaining agreements (Moskow, 1970).

During the period 1960 to 1969 teachers' organizations changed dramatically. As a result of civil rights marches, confrontations, and civil disorder, an environment was fostered for union activity. Large numbers of teachers joined with organized labor and adopted

methods commonly associated with labor unions, particularly collective bargaining and strikes. Concepts such as teacher militancy/teacher power, became household words among educators (Jessup, 1978; Cole, 1968). The movement was further supported by President Kennedy in 1962 with the enactment of Executive Order 10988 which permitted federal employees' limited power in collective bargaining. As an indirect result, states and municipalities later began passing laws governing collective bargaining.

The generally accepted turning point in the relationship between this country's teachers and the educational establishment is April 11, 1962, the day of the New York City teachers' strike. This walk out dramatized the determination of teachers to lash out against the system which they held responsible for poor working conditions, poor salary, poor esteem, and poor prestige.

Thirty strikes occurred in 1966. That number represented as many strikes as occurred in the preceding decade (Glass, 1967). National Education Association (NEA) affiliates, which had not been involved in a single work stoppage between 1952-63, participated in one-third of the 1966 stoppages; 80 percent of the teacher strikers were NEA members. In 1967 there were 42 strikes, and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) alone accounted for 30 of those strikes.

In February, 1968, teacher militancy entered still another phase. For the first time an entire state was affected when more than 50 percent of Florida's public school teachers failed to report to work. The teachers essentially scored the equivalent of

industry-wide bargaining with the state legislature. This massive work stoppage was organized by the National Education Association. For the first time many teachers, especially NEA members, were beginning to realize the full implications of membership in one of the largest professional organizations in the world.

Since these two major work stoppages, strikes have occurred with accelerating frequency, with import for nearly every school district in the country. The NEA reported 203 teacher strikes in the year 1975-76, a record number in United States history.

The present school year 1979-80 began with alarming statistics reported by the Bureau of National Affairs. During the months of September and October, 150 teacher strikes were recorded in 18 different states throughout the nation (BNA, 1979). One state, Michigan, reported the greatest number of strikes--50 by BNA's count followed by Illinois' 26 and Pennsylvania's 21 work stoppages. Strikes by NEA-affiliated districts outnumbered strikes by AFT districts by seven to one during this period.

The denial of the right of public employees to strike found legal precedent as early as 1951. In Norwalk, the Supreme Court of Connecticut (1951) ruled that teachers may not engage in concerted action such as strikes, work stoppage, or collective refusal to enter upon duties. However, this case did establish the legal boundaries of rights of teachers by permitting labor unions to organize for the purpose of collective bargaining and by permitting mediation and

arbitration as a method under Connecticut law to settle or adjust disputes.

In 1969 a North Carolina law forbidding public employees from joining unions was held unconstitutional as a violation of the First and Fourteenth Amendments in Atkins vs. City of Charlotte. In another case the court ruled that employees not only had the right to join labor unions but also had the right to file suit for damages and injunctive relief under the Civil Rights Act of 1871 (AFSCME vs. Woodward, 1969).

The right of public employees to strike involved essentially a question of state legislative guidance. The Supreme Court of Indiana, hearing the Anderson Federation of Teachers vs. School City of Anderson in 1969, held that the local teachers' union was in contempt of court for violating a restraint order to return to work. Nonetheless, the ruling by Justice DeBruler yielded a more moderate change of attitude regarding strikes. The court declared that:

1. State sovereignty is not necessarily infringed upon if collective bargaining and a limited strike are extended to public sector employees.
2. The impact of a private sector strike might be more crippling than a strike by public employees.
3. Public employees are granted the same irrevocable rights by the Constitution as private sector employees.

4. Public employees must have some means to assert their rights, especially when such rights are not insured through legislation.

The Indiana Supreme Court ruling was further supported by the Supreme Court of Alaska in the Kenai Peninsula Borough School District vs. Kenai Peninsula Education Association (1977). In this case the court ruled that due to the wording of the state statute, salaries, fringe benefits, number of hours worked, and amount of leave time were negotiable. The precedent for legislative direction as to what is or is not negotiable was established. In the absence of state statute, authority to bargain may be within the discretion of the local school board.

The right to strike has usually been tested by an application for an injunction forbidding the strike. A Pennsylvania court, in Armstrong School District vs. Armstrong Education Association in 1972, held that, when a clear and present danger exists, injunctive relief was justified. The court ruled that injunctions may be granted under conditions which present a threat to the health, safety, or welfare of the public. The court stated injunctions may be granted for the following reasons:

1. Disruption of routine procedures
2. Harassment of the school board
3. Danger of losing state subsidies because of the inability of the District to provide a full schedule of 180 days of instruction

In light of these and other court decisions, some states, particularly those in the South, with no statutes regarding strikes or collective bargaining, found themselves in a unique situation. Most of these states continued to oppose the public sector union movement. Other states, such as Alaska, have passed statutes that were more lenient and conducive to the teacher union movement. Alaska's statute, for example, delineated classes of strikers. Class I public employees (firemen, policemen) were not permitted to strike, while Class II employees (teachers) were permitted to strike.

Several distinctive issues have and will continue to be in the forefront of discussions regarding the public sector labor movement. Some of these issues are as follows:

1. Who has the right to strike, and under what conditions do they have that right?
2. Does the school board have absolute sovereignty?
3. Who is the employer, who represents the employer, and can the employer make concessions without the approval of the electorate?
4. What statutory framework will govern future directions?
5. Once this framework has been established, what preventive measures are administrators, tax payers, and governments willing to exercise in order to avert a strike situation?

Characteristics of Striking and Non-Striking Teachers

Ronald Corwin (1970) and Stephen Cole (1968) are considered to have published the most ambitious and comprehensive research

on teacher militancy. Each focused on a different perspective of the striking teacher.

Cole's study was concerned with the social characteristics of strike supporters. He assessed those characteristics external to teaching such as age, sex, salary, race, social class and prestige, and how these variables influence teacher views of militant or strike activity. He supplemented his data by distributing a self-administered questionnaire to a sample of 900 New York City school teachers and to all of the teaching staff in Perth Amboy, New Jersey. His response rate on the questionnaire was 37 percent and 48 percent, respectively. His findings were nationally cited: Jews, Democrats, persons from lower-class families, males, and younger faculty were more likely to support teacher militancy and, hence, engage in strikes and activities related to them. He directly associated militancy with teacher professionalism (Cole, 1969).

Ronald Corwin's research (1970) was conducted in the period of 1963-65. The subjects of the study were 2,000 teachers and administrators in two dozen mid-western high schools. With his survey Corwin attempted to account for teacher militancy in terms of variables intrinsic to teaching. Some of these variables were:

1. Faculty's conceptions of professional and employee role
2. Organizational conflict as it relates to bureaucratic characteristics
3. Amount of autonomy teachers should have over selection of textbooks, methods, and curriculum

Corwin concluded that the more professionally oriented teachers tend to engage in militant behavior because they appear to be most sensitive to the tensions within the organization. He further noted that an emerging profession such as teaching, by the very nature of professionalism, must achieve more authority over policies that govern them; otherwise, an inevitable conflict between professional forces and central administration will result in further teacher militancy (Corwin, 1970).

Robert Dreeben (1972) reviewed the work of Cole and Corwin and noted the contrast between their perspectives of militancy. Cole looked for impetus within the occupation of teaching, and Corwin looked within the structure of school systems. Dreeben stated that Cole and Corwin had distinctly separate views when they spoke of teacher militancy. Dreeben further challenged Corwin's assumptions that teacher militancy was a direct result of bureaucratic suppression. Dreeben was not of the opinion that schools are totally bureaucratic. Hence, before Dreeben would adapt Corwin's assumption that teacher militancy was attributable to conflict between bureaucratic and professional principles, he thought it was necessary to establish what the structural properties really were and then determine whether schools can appropriately be called bureaucratic. In sum, according to Dreeben the evidence for the contention that teacher militancy emerges from professional bureaucratic incompatibility seems equivocal at best (Dreeben, 1972).

Cole's work established the correlates of teacher militancy (salary, prestige, and religion) and provided defensible measures of militancy that were based on participation in real events (strikes); then he related those measures to professionalism. However, Dorothy Jessup (1978) has taken issue with Cole's evidence on salary and prestige and contends that there was insufficient information to draw conclusions regarding militant action. In addition, Jessup raised questions as to whether concerns external to teaching could readily be sufficient motivating forces (Jessup, 1978).

Dreeben (1972) questioned the fact that Cole associated militancy with professionalism and he noted that Cole failed to actually define the term profession. In fact, Dreeben reported that both Cole and Corwin have ignored a crucial defining characteristic of profession because it was not one readily discovered by surveying people about their work; that characteristic was concerned with the ability of a profession to solve problems brought for its clients. In fact, asserted Dreeben and others, efficacious performance was a more readily identifiable and truer measure of the profession than were demographic or organizational characteristics (Dreeben, 1972; Goode, 1969).

Other less ambitious studies have supported at least a portion of Cole's correlates. In a study of factors influencing teacher attitudes toward collective negotiations, Hellriegel, French, and Peterson (1970) confirmed that males more than females were more predisposed towards strike, and younger females (under 40) more than

older female teachers were more inclined towards militant behavior. Snarr (1975) reported that married males with non-working spouses, who have a higher stake in their jobs, were more prone to strike.

Dissatisfaction with salary terms was the variable most strongly associated with causes for teacher strikes (Hellriegel, French, Peterson, 1970; Cole, 1968; Snarr, 1975). However, there were researchers who listed causes that were other than salary related. Some of those reasons were:

1. Improper use of teacher talent and time
2. Low self-esteem
3. Lack of involvement in decision-making process
4. Powerlessness (Jessup, 1978; Lowe, 1965).

In sum, there appeared to be a paucity of empirical research regarding school teacher strikes. Most of the research described historical or political components of unionism (e.g., Donley, 1976; Lieberman, 1966) or social correlations toward militancy (e.g. Lowe, 1965; Cole, 1969; Fox and Wince, 1976) or associations of militancy with professionalism (Cole, 1968; Corwin, 1970). While Cole and Corwin's works rendered considerable contributions to the literature, there appeared to be a need for more updated information regarding the rapid growth of teacher militancy.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES

This chapter describes the selection of the subjects, instrument utilized, and the procedures employed.

Subjects

The subjects were teachers who were employed in a school district in the United States that had a strike situation during the beginning of school in either September or October of 1979.

The selection procedure for the population of this study involved a three-part process. First, 150 school districts were identified as having a strike during this time period. They were randomly assigned numbers. Utilizing the list of random numbers school districts were selected for participation. Second, each of the school districts selected was contacted by this researcher. A directory of names and addresses of teachers who were employed during the beginning of the strike was requested (see Appendix A). When the school districts responded in a positive manner the teachers in each directory were randomly assigned another number to facilitate the final selection procedure. The third and final step in the selection of the population to be studied consisted of a systematic random selection of the teachers from the consenting school districts. Those teachers

became the representative sample of the striking population of teachers during September or October, 1979, for this investigation.

One thousand teachers from the consenting school districts were mailed a questionnaire following the method outlined by Dillman (1978). A self-addressed, stamped envelope was included with the questionnaire. Two weeks later, those persons who had not returned the questionnaire received a follow-up letter and another questionnaire asking for their cooperation.

A thirty-seven percent rate of return was established from the initial and secondary mailing. Three hundred seventy-one teachers returned a partially or completely filled out survey. This total number of returned surveys represented 253 from strikers and 118 from non-strikers. This information indicates that the data used in this study under investigation will have approximately 68 percent representation from strikers and approximately 32 percent from non-strikers.

Instruments

A twenty-eight item questionnaire developed by the researcher was the result of a review of the literature available that described similar instruments and their utilization for gathering information such as that needed for this study (see Appendix B).

Most of the questions on the instrument required only one response. When more than one response was necessary, the following questions immediately following were ranked according to their

importance to the initial response. Primarily, closed questions were utilized throughout the survey.

The instrument was arranged so that for data analysis the responses could be grouped to reveal selected demographic characteristics, general characteristics of the educational setting, educational experience, level of training and tenure status, influences on decision making, and possible future actions of striking and non-striking teachers.

Analysis of Data

Data from responses were key-punched for computer analysis. Some surveys were not completely filled in but in all cases the responses were taken regardless of omissions. Those areas omitted were not included in the programming and were coded as no response (NR). No attempt was made to determine why the instrument was not completed in its entirety. Computer tabulations and analyses were performed to compile rankings, frequency distributions, and percentage distributions. The results of the analyses were compiled and reported by means of tables and accompanying narrative descriptions. The conclusions and recommendations contained in the final chapter of this investigation were drawn from the data presented.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to compare selected variables related to striking and non-striking teachers in certain school districts in the United States who were involved in a strike situation during September or October of 1979.

Material presented in this chapter was organized into five sections based upon 371 respondents' answers to a mailed survey. The five sections used for the presentation of the findings in this chapter were 1) Demographic Data, 2) General Characteristics of the Educational Setting, 3) Educational Experience, Level of Training, and Tenure Status, 4) Influences on Decision Making, and 5) Possible Future Actions of Both Striking and Non-Striking Teachers. Some of the survey forms were either returned with more than one response or were incomplete. For this reason tabulations for some items are not equal and are so noted. Responses to all questions were presented in tabular form. Data presented in the tables are accompanied by approximate narrative descriptions.

Demographic Data of Respondents

Table 1 presents the age and sex of striking and non-striking teachers who responded to the mailed survey. For the total population

Table 1

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers by Age and Sex

	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
A. Age Distribution										
Below 25 Years Old	9	3	2	11	9	3	20	6	45	55
25-30 Years Old	81	34	22	19	16	5	100	28	81	19
31-36 Years Old	57	23	16	24	21	7	81	22	70	30
37-42 Years Old	29	12	8	20	17	6	49	14	59	41
43-48 Years Old	27	11	7	21	18	6	48	13	56	44
49-54 Years Old	28	11	8	10	9	3	38	10	74	26
55-Over	15	6	4	12	10	3	27	7	56	46
TOTALS *	246	100	67	117	100	33	363	100		
B. Sex										
Male	82	34	23	36	31	10	118	33	70	30
Female	159	66	44	81	69	23	240	67	66	34
TOTALS *	241	100	67	117	100	33	358	100		

*Totals differ due to respondents not answering all questions.

under study, the age group 25-30 years of age (28 percent) returned the largest sample. The non-strikers largest representation was in the age group of 31-36 years (21 percent) and represented 30 percent of the respondents in this age group. The youngest group (below 25) constituted only 6 percent of the total sample and percentage wise (55 percent) were the highest portion of the sample by age who chose not to strike.

The total respondents were 33 percent male and 67 percent female (see Table 1). Of the total sample 241 elected to strike (67 percent). The percentage of strikers by sex was 34 percent male and 66 percent female. Of the 118 male respondents, 70 percent participated in the strike; of the 240 female respondents, 159 or 66 percent participated. Although females constituted a larger population under study, their male counterparts were more inclined to strike than were the females.

Table 2 depicts additional demographic data concerning ethnic origin and marital status of the respondents to the survey. Of the 359 who responded to this topic, 333 or 93 percent were white. The only other ethnic group represented was black (7 percent). The table also indicates that 95 percent of the strikers were white compared to 87 percent of the non-strikers. These data may be misleading due to the small representation of ethnic groups other than white population. When the two ethnic groups are viewed individually, the data appears to become more meaningful. Of the whites who responded, 70 percent elected to go on strike while 42 percent of the black respondents

Table 2
Ethnic Origin and Marital Status

	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
A. Ethnic Origin										
White	234	95	65	99	87	28	333	93	70	30
Black	11	5	3	15	13	4	26	7	42	58
TOTALS	245	100	68	114	100	32	359	100		
B. Marital Status										
Married	186	75	51	71	61	20	257	71	72	28
Single	37	15	10	32	27	9	69	19	54	46
Divorced	12	5	3	9	8	2	21	6	57	43
Separated	4	2	1	1	1	1	5	1	80	20
Other	8	3	2	4	3	1	12	3	67	33
TOTALS	247	100	67	117	100	32	364	100		

chose to strike. Although only 5 percent of the strikers were black, representing 3 percent of the total population, 42 percent of the total blacks in this study elected to strike. When viewed from this perspective the difference in figures between ethnic origin of strikers and non-strikers was not overwhelming.

Of the 364 respondents, 257 or 71 percent were married as presented in Table 2. One hundred and eighty-six of the 247 strikers (75 percent) were married compared to 71 (61 percent) of the 117 non-strikers. Of all the married respondents, 72 percent elected to go on strike as compared to 54 percent of the single population.

General Characteristics of Educational Setting

The size of the school and the kind of school where the respondents taught are presented in Table 3. Of the population that responded (363), 41 percent were teachers from elementary schools, and the next highest representation was from the senior high area. Although 66 percent of the total respondents were employed in elementary schools, 40 percent were strikers. While teachers from middle and junior high school levels constituted only 27 percent of the striking population, their number of 67 represented 71 percent of the total 95 middle and junior high school respondents. Among the non-strikers, 50 (42 percent) taught at the elementary level and represented 34 percent of the elementary school respondents. As shown in earlier tables these data indicate the ratio of striker to non-striker was 67 to 33.

Table 3

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers by Kind and Size of School

	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
A. Kind of School										
Elementary	98	40	27	50	42	14	148	41	66	34
Middle/Sr. High	67	27	18	28	24	8	95	26	71	29
Senior High	80	33	22	40	34	11	120	33	67	33
TOTALS	245	100	67	118	100	33	363	100		
B. Size of School										
Less than 200 Students	15	6	4	3	2	1	18	5	83	17
201-350 Students	40	17	11	17	15	5	57	16	70	30
351-500 Students	20	8	6	17	15	5	37	10	54	46
500+ Students	170	69	47	78	68	21	248	69	69	31
TOTALS	245	100	68	115	100	32	360	100		

With respect to school size there were 360 respondents. Sixty-nine percent or 248 were from a school of more than 500 students. Sixty-nine percent of those who responded who were in schools of 500 or more were also inclined to strike. Fifteen of the 18 responses from schools having less than 200 students joined in the strike. The largest percentage of non-strikers taught in schools with a population between 351 and 500 students.

Table 4 indicates that the largest percentages of teachers who responded to the survey were from schools that were predominately white. Three hundred one of the total 355 were from schools with this type of student body. The responses from teachers who taught at predominately black schools (25 or 7 percent of the total responses) showed that 15 or 60 percent of the teachers in that type of school chose to strike. Data comparison of returns by type of student population would be very difficult due to the overwhelming responses from teachers who taught in predominately white schools.

In keeping with the demographic data of the description of the student body, Table 4 indicates that 91 percent or 327 of the 360 frame represented schools whose faculties were predominately white. When looking at the category of 50 percent black and 50 percent white, the data reveals that 18 of the 26 teachers (69 percent) chose to go out on strike. Comparison of that data with the predominately black data revealed that only 43 percent of the teachers from predominately black schools chose to strike while 57 percent remained on the job.

Table 4

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers by Ethnic Origin of the Student Body and Faculty

	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
A. Ethnic Origin of Students										
Predominately Black	15	6	4	10	9	3	25	7	60	40
Predominately White	212	88	60	89	79	25	301	85	70	30
Approximately 50-50	15	6	4	14	12	4	29	8	52	48
TOTALS	242	100	68	113	100	32	355	100		
B. Ethnic Origin of Faculty										
Predominately Black	3	1	1	4	4	1	7	2	43	57
Predominately White	232	92	64	95	89	27	327	91	71	29
Approximately 50-50	18	7	5	8	7	2	26	7	69	31
TOTALS	253	100	70	107	100	30	360	100		

Educational Experience, Level of Training, and Tenure Status

The distribution of respondents was very closely grouped when looking at years of experience in teaching. No one group as represented by experience intervals stood out over the others; the three groups were very closely represented. Table 5 indicates that teachers with 4-7 years of experience represented 26 percent of the total respondents and made the highest percentage of returns. Teachers with 8 to 11 years of experience and teachers with 18 or more years of experience each represented 20 percent of the total (361).

Teachers who chose to strike were predominately individuals with 4-7 years of experience. Eighty-two percent of this group chose to strike, and this constituted 32 percent of the total strikers. These data suggest that the group with 4-7 years of experience was the strongest supporter of the strike situation.

In contrast, it appeared that teachers with the least amount of experience (1-3 years) and the largest amount of experience (18 or more years) supported the non-striking teachers. These groups were represented by 17 percent and 26 percent respectively of the non-striking population.

Table 5 indicates that of the 359 respondents to the section, level of training, two groups were equally represented. The larger of the two groups comprised individuals with bachelor's level training and were 46 percent of the sample. Master's level individuals were 40 percent of the respondents. In less than 1 percent of the

Table 5

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers by Years of Experience and Level of Training

	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
A. Years of Experience										
1-3 Years	21	9	6	20	17	6	41	11	51	49
4-7 Years	78	32	22	17	14	5	95	26	82	18
8-11 Years	47	19	13	23	20	6	70	20	67	33
12-15 Years	32	13	9	19	16	5	51	14	63	37
16-18 Years	25	10	7	8	7	2	33	9	76	24
18+ Years	41	17	11	30	26	8	71	20	58	42
TOTALS	244	100	68	117	100	32	361	100		
B. Level of Training										
BA or BS Degree	109	45	30	57	50	16	166	46	66	34
MA or M.Ed. Degree	100	41	28	44	38	12	144	40	69	31
MA/M.Ed.+30 Hours	34	14	9	14	12	4	48	13	71	29
Ph.D. or Ed.D.	1	>1	>1	0	0	0	>1	1	100	-
TOTALS	244	100	68	115	100	33	359	100		

cases did any individual have a terminal degree--in fact only one person reported this level of training.

Of the total sample, 30 percent of the individuals who chose to strike had training at the bachelor's level. This constituted 45 percent of the striking population and 66 percent of all individuals who reported training at this level.

Individuals at the master's level represented 40 percent of the total population. Of this population 31 percent (44) chose not to strike. Of the total respondents with a master's degree, only 31 percent elected not to strike. In contrast, 71 percent of the group who indicated that they had a master's plus 30 hours of training elected to strike; they only represented 14 percent of the total population and 9 percent of the total strikers.

Fifty-two percent of all respondents were regular classroom teachers (as presented in Table 6). This group also represented 49 percent of the strikers or 33 percent of the total population under study.

Tenured teachers represented 79 percent of the total respondents as presented in Table 6. Of the tenured teachers, 70 percent went out on strike while 63 percent of the non-tenured teachers walked out. Tenured teachers also made up 81 percent of the strikers. The non-tenured teacher in contrast to this had 63 percent who elected to strike, which constituted only 19 percent of the total strikers.

Table 6

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers by Type of Classroom Taught and Tenure Status

	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
A. Type of Classroom										
Regular Classroom	119	49	33	67	58	19	186	52	64	36
Special Subjects	99	41	28	39	34	11	138	38	72	28
Special Education	26	10	7	9	8	2	35	10	74	26
TOTALS	244	100	68	115	100	32	359	100		
B. Tenure Status										
Tenured	194	81	55	84	76	24	278	79	70	30
Non-Tenured	45	19	13	27	24	8	72	21	63	37
TOTALS	239	100	68	111	100	32	350	100		

Influences on Decision-Making

The greatest amount of pressure on the total group of respondents to leave their teaching assignments and join the strike came mainly from two sources as presented in Table 7. The chief source according to respondents were co-workers (44 percent). Apparently many of the teachers (21 percent) did not perceive themselves as being pressured either way. Indeed, 26 percent of the strikers indicated they received little or no pressure. This contrasts with 10 percent of the non-strikers who reported little or no pressure. Parents play little or no role in trying to convince teachers to leave their teaching assignments, according to the survey.

In reaction to the section of the survey inquiring into the role of selected third parties in providing assistance in settlement of the strike, both the strikers and non-strikers tended to agree that the central office and the school board greatly hindered the progress of settlement. Both strikers and non-strikers felt that the professional organization(s) assisted to a great extent in the settlement of the strike. Neither strikers or non-strikers could identify the party or parties who actually broke the strike.

Table 9 represents the responses to the question concerning alternate sources of income during the strike activities. That table indicates that 66 percent of this group did not have an alternate source of income. Seventy-seven percent of those who did have alternate sources of income chose to strike; compared to 23 percent who had extra income and did not strike.

Table 7

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers Regarding Source of Pressure to Leave Teaching Assignments

Source	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
Co-Workers	93	38	26	66	57	18	159	44	59	41
Administration	7	3	2	5	4	1	12	3	58	42
Professional Organizations	65	27	18	25	22	7	90	25	72	28
Parents	3	1	1	4	3	1	7	2	43	57
Immediate Family	13	5	4	5	4	1	18	5	72	28
Receive Little/No Pressure	65	26	18	12	10	3	77	21	84	16
TOTALS	246	100	69	117	100	31	363	100		

Table 8

Distribution of Perceptions of Strikers and Non-Strikers in Relation to
Role of Selected Third Parties in Providing Assistance in Settlement of Strike

	<u>Central Office</u>				<u>General Public</u>				<u>News Media</u>			
	<u>Striker</u>		<u>Non-Striker</u>		<u>Striker</u>		<u>Non-Striker</u>		<u>Striker</u>		<u>Non-Striker</u>	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Greatly Hindered Progress	173	77	59	56	9	4	7	6	23	10	20	19
Moderately Hindered Progress	26	12	16	15	16	7	14	13	48	22	16	15
Neither Hindered Nor Assisted	11	5	10	9	68	30	36	34	77	35	34	31
Assisted to Moderate Extent	8	3	10	9	104	46	44	41	55	25	31	29
Assisted to Great Extent	2	1	8	8	27	12	5	5	19	8	7	6
Actually Broke the Strike	5	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
TOTALS	225	100	106	100	225	100	107	100	222	100	108	100

Table 8 (Continued)

	<u>Parents</u>				<u>Prof. Organ.</u>				<u>School Board</u>				<u>State Suptd. Educ.</u>			
	<u>Striker</u>		<u>Non-Striker</u>		<u>Striker</u>		<u>Non-Striker</u>		<u>Striker</u>		<u>Non-Striker</u>		<u>Striker</u>		<u>Non-Striker</u>	
	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
Greatly Hindered Progress	10	4	9	8	17	8	27	26	183	80	70	64	27	13	13	13
Moderately Hindered Progress	15	7	12	11	17	8	13	13	23	10	17	16	14	7	6	6
Neither Hindered or Assisted	42	18	25	23	16	7	10	10	6	3	10	9	152	73	69	67
Assisted to Moderate Extent	119	52	47	44	47	21	16	16	4	1	6	5	7	3	11	11
Assisted to Great Extent	38	17	14	13	105	48	29	28	7	3	2	2	6	3	1	1
Actually Broke the Strike	4	2	1	1	18	8	7	7	6	3	4	4	3	1	2	2
TOTALS	228	100	108	100	220	100	102	100	229	100	109	100	209	100	102	100

Table 9

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers Having an Alternate Source of Income During Strike Activities

Alternate Income	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
Yes	88	38	26	26	26	8	114	34	77	23
No	145	62	44	74	74	22	219	66	66	34
TOTALS	233	100	70	100	100	30	333	100		

Sixty-two percent of the strikers reported that they had no additional income during the strike activities, and 74 percent of the non-strikers reported no alternate source of income.

Possible Future Actions

In response to the question concerning the need for another strike in the future, Table 10 indicates 76 percent of all the respondents indicated that there would be another strike in the near future. In contrast to most of the other items on the questionnaire, there is overwhelming agreement of strikers and non-strikers. Eighty-one percent of the strikers and 65 percent of the non-strikers reported that there will be another strike.

Table 10 reports the projected future actions of the individual strikers and non-strikers concerning whether they will strike or not strike when the time comes. Sixty-five percent of the total respondents (328) reported that they would strike. Seventy-five percent of the strikers reported that they would strike again, and 43 percent of the non-strikers reported that they would strike next time. This represents an increase of 18 percent for future strikers when faced with a similar situation.

Table 10

Distribution of Strikers and Non-Strikers as to Future Actions Toward
Strike and Feasibility of Another Strike in the System

	<u>Strikers</u>			<u>Non-Strikers</u>			<u>Combined</u>			
	No.	%	% Total	No.	%	% Total	No.	% Total	% Strikers	% Non-Strikers
A. Will Another Strike be Necessary?										
Yes	185	81	56	68	65	21	253	76	73	27
No	42	19	13	36	35	10	78	24	54	46
TOTALS	227	100	69	104	100	31	331	100		
B. Will You Participate in Future Strike?										
Yes	168	75	51	44	43	13	212	65	79	21
No	57	25	17	59	57	19	116	35	49	51
TOTALS	225	100	68	103	100	31	328	100		

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to compare striking and non-striking teachers in terms of selected variables in certain school districts in the United States that were involved in a strike situation during September or October of 1979. Teachers from randomly selected school districts who were engaged in a strike situation at the beginning of the school year composed the sample. Data analyses were intended to reveal selected demographic characteristics, general characteristics of the educational setting, educational experience, level of training and tenure status, influences on decision-making, and the perceived possible future actions of striking and non-striking teachers who responded to the mailed questionnaire.

The questionnaire developed and used in this study was based on a review of the literature available describing similar instruments and their utilization for gathering information as needed for this study. The questionnaire was developed from the information obtained from previous studies concerning strike situations and followed the basic assumptions concerning data collection via a mailed response.

The selection procedure for the population under study involved a three-part process. First, school districts were selected at

random in the United States that were on strike for at least one day during September or October 1979; second, further random selection was made of those districts who chose to participate in the study after the initial selection was made; and, third, a systematic random sample of one thousand teachers from the consenting school districts was mailed the survey instrument with a stamped return addressed envelope. A 37 percent rate of return was obtained; three hundred and seventy-one teachers returned completed or partially completed survey forms. The total number of questionnaires from strikers was 253 and 118 from non-strikers, representing 68 percent and 32 percent respectively.

All age groups ranging from below 25 to over 55 were represented in the sample. The largest represented age group were from 25-30 years of age; this is not only true by percentage of the total group (28 percent) but also actual number (100). The two age levels that were minimally represented were the below 25 years of age (6 percent) and 55 years of age and older (7 percent).

The group 25-30 years in age also was the highest represented among teachers who elected to go on strike (34 percent), and of this age group 81 percent of the total group elected to strike.

The below 25 years of age and over 55 years of age were again the lowest percentage of those who elected to strike, representing only 3 percent and 6 percent respectively. The reverse is also true in that of the two age groups below 25 and over 55 they represented the highest percentage of teachers who did not strike with 55 percent and 46 percent respectively.

Females (67 percent) outnumbered males in the total sample as well as in the striking (66 percent) and non-striking (69 percent) groups. Seventy percent of the total male population elected to go on strike compared to 66 percent of female teachers. Ninety-three percent of the total sample were whites as were ninety-five percent of all strikers. The black population was only 7 percent of the total group and represented 5 percent of the strikers. While the blacks were only minimally represented in the total return, 42 percent of the blacks who responded had chosen to strike.

Married teachers dominated the striking and non-striking groups as well as the total sample. Seventy-one percent of the respondents were married, and 72 percent of this group elected to go on strike. Seventy-five percent of the strikers were married as were 61 percent of the non-strikers. Fifty-four percent of the single teachers elected to strike as did fifty-seven percent of divorced teachers.

Teachers who responded to the questionnaires were primarily from elementary schools. While the highest percentage of strikers (40 percent) were elementary teachers, analysis of the data by groups independently indicated that teachers from middle/junior high schools as a group were more likely to strike than the other two groups. Seventy-one percent of the teachers who reported that they taught at the middle or junior high school level had elected to strike, as had 66 percent of elementary and 67 percent of senior high teachers.

Respondents to this survey were predominately from schools that had 500 or more students. Two hundred and forty-eight of the teachers representing 69 percent of the returns were from schools of this nature. Teachers from schools with less than 200 students comprised only 5 percent of the returns, although 83 percent of the teachers from these schools elected to strike compared to 69 percent of the teachers from the larger schools.

Ninety-one percent of the respondents to the survey were from schools who had predominately white faculties and the ethnic origin of the student bodies taught by these teachers were predominately white (85 percent). Teachers from schools with predominately black students appeared to be more supportive of the strike than not, as 60 percent of this group elected to strike compared to 52 percent of teachers who taught in an approximately 50-50 white-black situation.

Teachers who could be considered beginning teachers, having one to three years experience, and teachers with considerable experience (over 18 years), were the two groups that had the lowest representation among strikers. Forty-nine percent of the group with one to three years experience, and 42 percent of teachers with over 18 years of experience elected not to go on strike. These two groups represent 17 percent and 26 percent respectively of all the teachers who elected not to strike. Of the six total groups in this study these two groups represent 43 percent of the strikers. Compare this to the 18 percent of teachers who elected not to strike in the experience interval of from 4-7 years. Twenty-six percent of the

total sampled reported having from 4-7 years of experience. Eighty-two percent of this group elected to go on strike, representing 32 percent of the strikers and 14 percent of the non-strikers.

Bachelor-level teachers were represented by 166 respondents or 46 percent of the returns. One hundred and forty-four of the respondents indicated having earned a master's degree. While more bachelor level teachers responded to the survey, a higher percentage of master's degree teachers elected to strike (69 percent). When each group is viewed independently of the other, the highest percentage of the teachers in any group that elected to go on strike were teachers with the master's degree and 30 hours beyond (71 percent). Based upon data presented there did not appear to be any significance between levels of training related to the decision to strike or not to strike. Two-thirds of all the levels of training supported the strike. The only exception was the one respondent with a Ph.D. who elected to strike.

Regular classroom teachers represented 52 percent of the sample. Sixty-four percent of this group elected to strike, 49 percent of all strikers. Special subject teachers were very supportive of the strike; 72 percent of this population went out on strike. The highest percentage of teachers compared to others in their group supporting the strike were special education teachers. Seventy-four percent or 26 of the 35 special education teachers who responded to the survey reported that they had participated as strikers.

Tenure status apparently had little or no effect on whether or not a teacher elected to strike. While 79 percent of the population were tenured, 63 percent of the non-tenured teachers elected to strike. In fact the non-tenured teachers represented only 24 percent of the non-strikers.

Strikers and non-strikers reported that the greatest source of pressure to leave their teaching assignments came from co-workers (38 percent and 57 percent) and professional organizations (27 percent and 22 percent). However, strikers reported that in 26 percent of the cases they received little or no pressure to leave their teaching assignments. Only 10 percent of the non-strikers could report this lack of pressure.

Strikers reported that in their perception the central office (77 percent) and the school board (80 percent) greatly hindered progress in providing assistance in the settlement of the strike, and from their responses it was clear that they could not identify who actually broke the strike. The strikers also indicated that their professional organization (48 percent) assisted to a great extent in providing assistance in settling the strike. They also reported that the general public (46 percent) and parents (52 percent) assisted to a moderate extent in the strike settlement. The data also indicates that the strikers felt that the news media neither helped nor hindered but played more or less a neutral role in the settlement of the strike. In concert with the strikers, non-strikers also indicated that the central office (56 percent) and the school board (64 percent) greatly

hindered the progress of settlement. Both groups indicated that the state superintendent of education neither helped nor hindered in the settlement of the strike but played a neutral role. Non-strikers also reported that the professional organization assisted to a great extent in the settlement of this strike.

Seventy-six percent of strikers and non-strikers indicated that another strike will be necessary in the future. Eighty-one percent of the strikers and 65 percent of the non-strikers indicated that they felt another strike will be necessary.

Thirty-eight percent of the strikers had an alternative source of income during the strike compared to 26 percent of the non-strikers. Overall, 34 percent of the total sample had an alternative source of income.

In response to the question of future participation in a strike, 65 percent of all respondents indicated that they would participate. Seventy-five percent of the strikers indicated they would again strike. The non-strikers indicated that 43 percent of their numbers would elect to participate in a strike in the future.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were based upon the findings of the study and are attributable only to the population under study. The investigator does not imply that the results could be applied to all teachers, either strikers or non-strikers, throughout the United States.

1. Teachers between the ages of 25-30 years of age were more inclined to strike than those in other age groups.
2. Younger teachers below 25 years of age and teachers over 55 years of age represented the largest groups of non-strikers.
3. While there were more female than males represented in the sample, males were more inclined to strike than were females.
4. Little can be cited concerning any relationship of ethnic origin regarding participation or non-participation in strike activities.
5. Elementary school teachers were more inclined to return their survey than the middle or high school teachers.
6. More middle/junior high school teachers supported the strike than did elementary or senior high.
7. Teachers in the largest school systems, as well as teachers in the smallest school systems, supported the strike rather than teachers in middle-sized school systems.
8. Teachers from predominately white schools and teachers from predominately black schools were more supportive of the strike than teachers from schools with a 50-50 black/white ratio.
9. The data indicated that ethnic origin of the faculty played little or no role in the decision to strike.

10. Beginning teachers and the most experienced teachers did not support the strike.
11. Teachers with four to seven years of experience were the strongest supporters of the strike.
12. Special education teachers supported the strike more than did regular or special subject teachers.
13. Tenure status had little or no effect upon the teachers' decisions concerning the strike.
14. The greatest source of pressure to engage in a strike came from co-workers.
15. Once the striker elected to strike, he received little or no pressure to remain out.
16. The non-strikers were continually pressured from the two main sources--co-workers and professional organizations.
17. Central office personnel, including the superintendent and school board members, greatly hindered the progress toward termination of the strike.
18. The news media are perceived by strikers and non-strikers as not taking an active part in the settlement of the strike.
19. The greatest assistance in the settlement of the strike reported by both the striking and non-striking population was from the professional organization(s).
20. The state Superintendent of education did not take an active role in the settlement of the strike. The

population under study reported the superintendent had little or nothing to do with the settlement.

21. Both the striker and non-strikers felt that there will be another strike in the near future.
22. Alternative sources of income did not seem to be a significant factor in the decision to strike.
23. While the data supports the conclusion that some strikers will elect not to strike in the future, those who will not strike will be a very small percentage as compared to the non-strikers who indicated that in the next strike they will cross over and join the strikers.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based upon findings and conclusions of this study:

1. A method or methods should be developed to enable the researcher to have access to school directories in order that additional studies of strikes and their impact on teachers may be made.
2. An investigation should be conducted to determine the rationale used by the non-strikers who after the strike indicated that during the next strike they would take an active part in the strike.
3. Further analysis of the reason(s) why the strikers and non-strikers felt that the school board and local superintendent greatly hindered the settlement of the strike.

4. An investigation should be conducted to determine why immediately following a strike the majority of the respondents felt another strike would be necessary.
5. The state boards of education should consider developing guidelines for the state superintendent of education to follow during and immediately after the strike in order that he might play a more meaningful role in the settlement.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Department of Human Development/
63 Huey P. Long Field House

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY AND AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE
BATON ROUGE · LOUISIANA · 70803

504/388-6662

I am a doctoral student in the area of school administration here at L.S.U. I am currently developing my dissertation material so I may attempt to finish my degree by the summer session.

My dissertation topic covers teacher strikes and the development of a teacher profile from the participants in a strike situation. Enclosed is a working draft of the questionnaire that I have developed to help me collect the necessary data from teachers within school districts that had strike situations during the school year 1979-80.

I would greatly appreciate your help so that I may complete the requirements for my degree. Would you please forward to me a list of teachers in your district so that I may contact them by direct mail?

I have also enclosed a copy of the letter that I will mail directly to the teachers requesting their assistance in filling out the enclosed questionnaire.

I appreciate your help and if you would like to review the results upon completion I will be more than happy to send you the abstract and the necessary reference if you wanted to read the finished project in detail.

Thank you again for your help and may I assure you that your school list will not be identified by name or specific reference.

Sincerely,

Sally C. Brumberger

Sally Brumberger

SB:fl

Enclosure (1)

APPENDIX B

Department of Human Development
63 Huey P. Long Field House

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY AND AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE
BATON ROUGE • LOUISIANA • 70803

504/388-6662

May 2, 1980

Dear Fellow Educator:

I am sending you this letter and the enclosed survey form so that I may learn more about a very tense situation - teacher strikes.

Would you please take the time to fill out the enclosed survey form and drop it in the mail in the self-addressed stamped envelope?

May I assure you that the results of this survey and particularly your responses will not reveal your name or job location. The responses will be coded so that only I, the researcher, will know that I have secured all the necessary data from those surveyed.

I appreciate you taking time out of your already busy schedule to help me complete a very needed study so that we may have a better understanding of the individuals involved in public school strike situations.

I wish you much success in this and future academic years.

Sincerely,

Sally Brumberger
Ms. Sally Brumberger
Research Associate

SB:fl

Enclosures (2)

NOTE: PLEASE DO NOT IDENTIFY YOURSELF BY NAME OR SCHOOL

PLEASE CHECK: APPROPRIATE DESCRIPTION OF YOUR SCHOOL

<u>Kind of School</u>	<u>Size of School</u>
Elementary _____	Less than 200 Students _____
Middle _____	201 - 350 Students _____
Junior High _____	356 - 500 Students _____
Senior High _____	500+Students _____

<u>Race of Students</u>	<u>Race of Faculty</u>
Predominately Black _____ (More than 50%)	Predominately Black _____ (More than 50%)
Predominately White _____ (More than 50%)	Predominately White _____ (More than 50%)
Approximately 50-50 _____	Approximately 50-50 _____

PLEASE CHECK: APPROPRIATE DESCRIPTION OF YOURSELF

<u>Race</u>	<u>Kind of Teacher</u>	<u>Age</u>
White _____	Regular Classroom _____	Below 25 Yrs. Old _____
Black _____	Teacher _____	25-30 Years _____
Other _____	a) Special Subjects _____	31-36 Years _____
(Specify) _____	(Specify) _____	37-42 Years _____
	b) All Subjects _____	43-48 Years _____
	Special Education _____	49-54 Years _____
	(Exceptionality) _____	55-Over _____

<u>Teaching Experience</u> (Excluding this Year)	<u>Formal Education Completed</u>
1- 3 Yrs. _____	BA or BS _____
4- 7 Yrs. _____	MA or M.Ed. _____
8-11 Yrs. _____	MA/Med. + 30 Hours _____
12-15 Yrs. _____	Ph.D. _____
15-18 Yrs. _____	
18+ Yrs. _____	

<u>Present Status</u>
Married _____
Single _____
Divorced _____
Separated _____
Other _____

(Sex)
Male _____
Female _____

- | | <u>Yes</u> | <u>No</u> |
|---|------------|-----------|
| 1. Did you cast a vote regarding the strike in your district this year? | _____ | _____ |
| 2. If you did vote, did you vote <u>for</u> the strike? | _____ | _____ |
| 3. Did you remain in your teaching position throughout the entire striking period?
(Briefly List Reasons Why) | _____ | _____ |
| _____ | | |
| _____ | | |
| _____ | | |
| 4. Regardless, just prior to and during the striking period, from whom did you receive the most pressure to leave your teaching assignment? | | |
| Co-Workers | _____ | _____ |
| Administration (including principal) | _____ | _____ |
| Professional Organization | _____ | _____ |
| Parents | _____ | _____ |
| Your Immediate Family | _____ | _____ |
| Other (Specify) _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Received No Pressure | _____ | _____ |
| 5. Did you walk out? | | |
| (Briefly List Reasons Why) | _____ | _____ |
| _____ | | |
| _____ | | |
| _____ | | |

If you answered yes to Question 5, please respond to the following; otherwise proceed to #8.

- | | | |
|----------------------------|-------|-------|
| 1) Did you remain out for: | | |
| 1 - 3 Days | _____ | _____ |
| 4 - 6 Days | _____ | _____ |
| 7 - 9 Days | _____ | _____ |
| 10 or 13 Days | _____ | _____ |
| Entire Strike Period | _____ | _____ |

No

- 1) Walked Picket Lines
- 2) Attended School Board Meetings
- 3) Worked as an Organizer
- 4) Other (Specify)

- Co-Workers
Administration (including principal)
Professional Organization
Parents
Your Immediate Family (e.g. husbands/
wives, children)
Received No Pressure

- 1) Raise
- 2) Reduced Class Size
- 3) Public Awareness to Teacher Problems
- 4) Other (Specify)

14. In your own opinion, what was/were the primary factors that influenced your course of action? (Whether you either stayed in classroom or went on strike.)

15. In your opinion to what extent did the following individuals or groups attempt to provide assistance in settling the strike?

	<i>Greatly Hindered Progress</i>	<i>Moderately Hindered Progress</i>	<i>Neither Hindered or Assisted</i>	<i>Assisted to Moderate Extent</i>	<i>Assisted to Great Extent</i>	<i>Actually Broke the Strike</i>
Central Office (Including Local Superintendent)						
General Public						
News Media						
Parents						
Professional Teacher Organization						
School Board						
State Superintendent of Education						
Other (Specify)						

APPENDIX C

BAKERSFIELD CITY SCHOOL DISTRICT

EDUCATION CENTER, 1300 BAKER STREET
BAKERSFIELD, CALIFORNIA 93305
(805) 327-3311

ROBERT B. MULLEN
DIRECTOR
PERSONNEL SERVICES



May 16, 1980

Ms. Sally Brumberger
Department of Human Development
Louisiana State University
63 Huey P. Long Field House
Baton Rouge, LA 70803

Dear Ms. Brumberger:

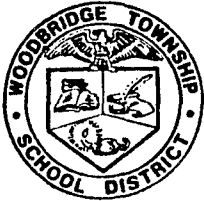
I am sorry to inform you that the Superintendent does not wish to participate in your survey on strike attitudes. It is his feeling that it will only increase the tension especially since we are in a situation of reducing staff through our collective bargaining agreement and this is proving to be painful for all sides.

Best wishes for a successful completion of your doctoral requirements.

Sincerely,

ROBERT B. MULLEN
Director of Personnel

jc



WOODBIDGE TOWNSHIP SCHOOL DISTRICT

P.O. BOX 428 SCHOOL STREET
WOODBIDGE, N.J. 07095
201 - 638-0400
FREDRIC BUONOCORE, Ph. D.
Superintendent of Schools

February 25, 1980

Ms. Sally Brumberger
Department of Human Development
63 Huey P. Long Field House
Louisiana State University
Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70803

Dear Ms. Brumberger:

We received your recent letter in which you requested the opportunity to distribute a questionnaire to teachers in our school district in order to gather information for your dissertation.

Despite the fact that the information relative to a recent strike which you might gather from members of our teaching staff would be valuable in developing your dissertation, we are sorry to have to inform you that we cannot divulge the names of our teachers in order that you might contact them. Please understand this policy exists in order to protect the interests of our staff members.

Thank you for your kind understanding in this matter. We wish you much success in completing your doctoral dissertation.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Fredric Buonocore".

Fredric Buonocore
Superintendent of Schools

eme



February 25, 1980

Ms. Sally Brumberger
Department of Human Development
Huey P. Long Field House
Louisiana State University
Baton Rouge, LA 70803

Dear Ms. Brumberger:

I have received your letter requesting that you do some work in relation to your doctorate with members of our teaching staff and of our central staff. We would like to be of help to you in this undertaking, but do not indiscriminately hand out our total staff directory. Our past practice has not been to make it available to doctoral students, sales people, and the like.

If there is some other way that we could be of help, please let us know.

Sincerely yours,

Walter A. Hitchcock
Superintendent of Schools

WAH:mce
1-6772



Dr. Robert F. Alioto
Superintendent of Schools
(415) 565-9450

San Francisco Unified School District 135 Van Ness Avenue San Francisco California 94102

March 11, 1980

Ms. Sally Brumberger
Department of Human Development
Louisiana State University
63 Huey P. Long Field House
Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70803

Dear Ms. Brumberger:

Thank you for your recent letter requesting information for your dissertation.

While I would like to be of assistance to you in completing your dissertation requirements, we have rights of confidentiality for teachers that must be observed. Therefore, I am unable to forward to you a list of teachers.

Perhaps you may want to contact Mr. James Ballard of the San Francisco Federation of Teachers - 655 - 14th Street, San Francisco, for assistance regarding the teachers' strike situation.

Sincerely yours,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Robert F. Alioto", is written over the typed name.

Robert F. Alioto
Superintendent of Schools

RFA/wa

VITA

Sally Clausen Brumberger is originally from Centerville, Louisiana. She is the daughter of Ms. Nell Clausen and the late Everette Clausen.

Upon graduation from Centerville High School, she entered Louisiana State University and earned a Bachelor of Science in Physical Education in 1967. In 1971 she completed a Master of Education in Special Education.

Her educational experience includes three years of public school teaching in East Baton Rouge Parish. She served at LSU as an educational consultant on university-based evaluation teams for three years, and she worked as a clinical strategist for East and West Baton Rouge Parish, the evaluation teams, and the State Department of Education for one year. Presently she is employed with the United States Department of Justice as well as acting as a graduate assistant in the Department of Human Development.

She is married to Robert Brumberger, and they are the parents of David Bryan and Rebecca Lynn Brumberger.

EXAMINATION AND THESIS REPORT

Candidate: Sally Clausen Brumberger

Major Field: Education

Title of Thesis: A Comparative Study Of Striking And Non-Striking Teachers In
Selected School Districts In The United States.

Approved:

Richard G. Musewenke
Major Professor and Chairman

James B. Traynham
Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:

C. Robert Blackburn

Benjamin D. Bawls

Benton Greenellon

R.C. Van Brown

Date of Examination:

October 10, 1980